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A SURVEY OF INTENSIVE PROGRAMS IN THE UNCOMMON LANGUAGES, SUMMER 1962.

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THIS REPORT ON INTENSIVE COURSES IN THE UNCOMMON LANGUAGES CONDUCTED AT 22 AMERICAN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES DURING THE SUMMER OF 1962 IS THE RESULT OF A SURVEY UNDERTAKEN BY H.M. HOENIGSWALD OF THE UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA, R.B. NOSS OF THE FOREIGN SERVICE INSTITUTE, AND E.N. MCCARUS AND J.K. YAMAGIWA OF THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN. (BY INTENSIVE COURSES ARE MEANT THOSE WHICH COVER AN ACADEMIC YEAR'S WORK DURING A SUMMER SESSION.) EIGHTEEN OF THE UNIVERSITIES VISITED WERE NDEA LANGUAGE AND AREA CENTERS. TWENTY-THREE DIFFERENT LANGUAGES WERE BEING TAUGHT. A DISCUSSION OF INTENSIVE SUMMER COURSES AS COMPARED WITH SEMI- OR NON-INTENSIVE COURSES POINTS OUT THE PARTICULAR ADVANTAGES OF THE SUMMER INTENSIVE SESSION--(1) THE STUDENT IS ABLE TO INTERRELATE HIS WORK OF THE PRECEDING AND FOLLOWING YEARS, ESPECIALLY WHEN THE WORK IS DONE AT THE SAME INSTITUTION. (2) THE CONSTANT CONTINUOUS EXPOSURE TO THE TARGET LANGUAGE REDUCES THE CHANCES OF LAPSES AND FORGETTING. (3) THE STUDENT IS ABLE TO ACCELERATE HIS ACADEMIC SCHEDULE. SOME OBSERVATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS CONCERNING THE METHODS OF APPROACH, OBJECTIVES, TEACHING STAFF, STUDENTS, TEXTS, EXAMINATIONS, LANGUAGE LABORATORIES, AND OTHER AREAS OF INTEREST IN THE FIELD OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE METHODOLOGY ARE INCLUDED IN THIS REPORT. (AMM)

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I. Introduction

This report on intensive courses in the uncommon languages conducted at twenty-two American colleges and universities during the summer of 1962 is based on a survey undertaken by Henry M. Hoenigswald of The University of Pennsylvania, Richard B. Noss of The Foreign Service Institute, and Ernest N. McCarus and Joseph K. Yamagiwa of The University of Michigan. By intensive courses are meant those which cover an academic year's work during a summer session. Institutions and language programs visited include:

*California at Berkeley (Russian)
*Chicago (Bengali, Tamil)
*Columbia (Japanese, Chinese, Portuguese, Spanish, Hungarian)
*Cornell (Indonesian, Thai)
Duke (Hindustani)
*Duquesne (Swahili)
*Fordham (Russian)
*Harvard (Arabic, Persian, Turkish)
*Hawaii (Chinese, Japanese, Indonesian, Thai, and Korean)
*Indiana (Russian)
*Kansas (Japanese)
*Michigan (Chinese, Japanese, Russian)
*Michigan State (Hausa, Ibo, Swahili, Yoruba)
Middlebury (Russian)
*Pennsylvania (Hindi-Urdu, Nepali)
*Pittsburgh (Chinese)
*Stanford (Chinese, Japanese)
Utah State (Russian, Spanish, Persian)
*Washington (Russian, Chinese)
Western Reserve (Russian)
*Wisconsin (Hindi, Telugu, Kannada)
*Yale (Chinese, Russian)

The starred institutions house NDEA Language and Area Centers. Summer language programs supported by the U. S. Office of Education under the terms of the National Defense Education Act are underlined.

The survey had for its basic purpose the identification of the best administrative and teaching practices observable at the several institutions. A listing of practices grounded in good theory and tested by experience will perhaps help to indicate the optimal conditions under which intensive language programs might be conducted. A listing of these practices will provide guidelines in developing the Office of Education's program of support for intensive language programs. Suppleness and variety are desiderata in any program; the several principles and procedures are best followed in various combinations at various times throughout a summer.

If, as no one can doubt, intensive programs are here to stay, the problems which they involve will need continual analyzing and researching, with teachers of language working in collaboration with teachers of area subjects and psychologists of language learning. Certain supervisory and pedagogical practices seem preferable over some others, but the determination whether one of several disputable procedures is to be preferred over the others is, we believe, researchable.

For the many courtesies extended to the survey team, the members wish to express their gratitude. In this day of mountainous paper work and

visitors by the dozen, the infliction of each new questionnaire seems almost unconscionable. But in virtually every case the team members were met with unfailing courtesy and (we believe) with real candor. Except for necessary extrapolations, everything in this report represents observations made and opinions recorded during the course of the survey.

Rather impressive are the special local conditions under which the several programs operate. Some programs, like those in Russian at Indiana and Michigan, may have a total enrollment of 200 or more students. Many get along on enrollments that barely meet the minimums imposed by their university administrations. The total local climate (the practices followed in courses in the European languages, a feeling that nothing is being learned unless it has to do with the written language) may lead to emphasis of the written over the spoken language.

Great cities like New York and Cleveland send college students to many areas of the country, where, having taken courses in beginning Russian, Chinese or Japanese, they return to take second-year work in the summer. The adjustments that become necessary plague the conscientious teacher and make for lesser efficiency than he would desire.

The situation at Hawaii is complicated by a student body which is in large part Asian-descended and comes to the university with a background of use of some one of the Chinese, Japanese, or Korean dialects. In Cleveland, the heavy Slavic element in the population helps to enlarge Western Reserve's classes in Russian. The history of a university's contacts with particular areas of the world may help to determine the languages which it teaches, as Persian at Utah State.

Institutions also differ in their intellectual flair. Research-oriented staffs tend to think of reading-grammar-translation as being the most effective methodology. They tend too to concern themselves with the preparation of teaching materials custom-tailored to the special needs of their students, who are inclined to be academically oriented. Most programs are intent on doing the best possible job with as many students as can be accommodated. One or two keep only their best students and apparently do not mind a high rate of attrition.

II. Intensive versus semi-intensive and non-intensive courses

1. The case for the intensive summer course

Intensive language courses in the summer represent the wave of the present and future:

a. They permit ready articulation with the work of the preceding and following years, particularly when the work is done at the same institution. Doing less than a year's work means that the student may have to mark time until the next appropriate course is offered. Doing more may lead to the same result; in fact, students who have studied a foreign language during the summer will presumably move ahead of those who haven't since they will approach the following autumn's work with the language fresher in their minds. Some amount of inequity needs to be resolved as the fall term opens, but in general the intensive summer language course that covers the work of an entire year is most easily fitted into a university's curriculum. At a time when more and more universities are contemplating year-round operation, the role which intensive courses in the several subject areas might play deserve special consideration.

b. Constant, continuous exposure to the target language reduces the chances of lapses and forgetting. For a given amount of classroom time, intensive courses probably accomplish more than non-intensive courses. At one of the universities visited, the tests given in the elementary course at the end of the first semester, 1961-62, was repeated at the end of four weeks in the summer. The students in the summer "won hands down." As far as the instructor could judge, the students in the two courses were equivalent in caliber, but those in the summer spoke the language they were learning with greater readiness and showed better control of grammar. In another course, all the grammar studied in a two-semester course was covered in six weeks. In an intensive course, properly taught, the student receives maximum exposure to the language he is studying plus the benefits of formal instruction. Intensive summer courses assure the student of a good first year in the target language.

c. Intensive courses make for quicker usefulness of a foreign language. Four years of college work can be accomplished in a summer followed by an academic year and a second summer, if a year's work can be accomplished in each of the two summers and two years' work done in the intervening academic year. This enables a student to use a foreign language not only in courses in literature but also in courses in the social and technical sciences. It is only fair to note, however, that materials in foreign languages may differ as to quality and that if too many foreign languages were represented in the reading materials for any course, special arrangements would have to be made to check on correctness of use and interpretation. Even when the aims are not academic, intensive courses will quickly prepare students for overseas travel, at least to the point of their being able to make their way around in a foreign environment. Intensive courses are the only answer to reaching a prescribed level of proficiency by a certain time, predicated, of course, on the student's willingness to work. They meet the special needs of the undergraduate in an accelerated program, the graduate student whose normal year is filled with the requirements of his field, and the school teacher or other full-time job holder who can use only the summer months in order to extend his knowledge. Considering the fact that it took 1600-2000 hours of classroom work to produce a Japanese language officer during World War II, the offering of intensive courses enhances the chances of producing students who are truly skilled in the use of a foreign language.

d. The intensive course fills the vacuum now being created by a lessening in the total number of area courses brought about by increased support of summer research on the part of the social scientists, especially at those institutions which have been the recipients of the huge grants given by the Ford Foundation. Competition from area courses may come if more of these courses were offered in the summer semester of a trimester year or if larger numbers of students were to need particular area courses in order to graduate. But it seems more likely that an area specialist who has the opportunity to do research with support amounting to a summer's salary, plus, in many cases, funds for travel and subsistence, will prefer to do this research rather than to teach. Also, few students can take both a language course that is truly intensive and an area course and do the former justice.

e. In schools with small enrollments, the offering of an intensive first-year course in the summer permits the students to move into intermediate courses in the fall, along with the students who completed their first year's course in the preceding spring. The two groups together are sometimes needed in order to form a fiscally viable intermediate course.

f. Intensive courses assure attainment of the skills needed by elementary and high school teachers, as defined by the Modern Language Association of America. In many states, without some amount of foreign language in high school, the prospective teacher of foreign language in a primary or secondary school can hardly hope to meet the standards set by the MLA. To meet these standards, more than four years of college training, given at the usual rate, are needed. Since the decision to become a foreign language teacher usually comes during a collegian's sophomore year, an intensive course in the summer between the sophomore and junior years becomes almost mandatory. The earlier the intensive courses can be taken, the better. Intensive intermediate courses might thus be given in the summer to students who have just completed their freshman year and intensive first-year courses to students who have just graduated from high school.

Compared with the intensive language course, the summer semi-intensive course covering one semester's work can claim only one or two advantages:

a. The feeling persists in some quarters that exclusive absorption in a foreign language course may be somewhat less profitable than a less hurried approach which will permit greater time for absorption. Proponents of semi-intensive courses argue that semi-intensive courses permit slower, surer acquisition of a second language.

b. A series of semi-intensive courses would have the advantage of accommodating students who are out of phase with the intensive summer courses and would also be advantageous for those students who are making up failures of one semester only.

We need also to note that intensive courses - administratively speaking - are not easy to maintain. Provision of a strong language staff from one summer to the next becomes exceedingly complex when

a. the number of teachers is small

b. they go on leave for rest or research

c. the high-priced professor takes up a major share of the funds.

Intensive programs also are not to be recommended to the student who

a. is too easily diverted by non-academic attractions

b. tries to combine his usual domestic life with a full schedule of classes - in particular at those schools in which the students of an intensive program are housed together

c. tries to join a full-time summer job with intensive language study.

The question, how large a percentage of students who take an intensive beginner's course go on to second-year work, is difficult to answer. In the case of the larger summer programs which draw their students from a number of schools, as few as 25% of a class may go on with its work at the institution where the summer's work is taken. The students who do not continue are not necessarily inept: they may have returned to their jobs after having spent a summer in language study, they may have been drafted into military service, or they may have decided that they should study another language. After the second year, the number of students who go on to advanced study seems regrettably low. But it seems probable that more students will continue with foreign language study if they can elect a series of intensive courses that will, more quickly than is possible with non-intensive courses, permit them to arrive at real competence.

2. Intensive courses in the academic year

The case for intensive courses in the summer which make a year's work the unit is easily made. It is not so easy to justify intensive courses (given at the rate of approximately twenty hours a week) during the regular academic year.

a. During the academic year the foreign language departments are inevitably affected by university-wide requirements which enforce upon the students a variety of non-language courses.

b. The penalty for dropping an intensive course may be unusually severe. Unless some kind of dispensation is arranged, to give credit in proportion to the amount of time a student has devoted to a language course, he may well lose an entire semester's credits. The "impossible" student should be quickly moved out of a program, preferably in its first week, so that other courses may be found for him. Thorough scrutiny of application forms, analysis of letters of recommendation, and the giving of aptitude and placement tests might solve the problem, along with alert observation by teachers. The slow but not impossible learner might be retained if the program were large enough to provide instruction at slow speed, but this is a luxury reserved only for the larger programs. The inept student should be sped on his way. Regrettably, he becomes a casualty of the intensive course.

c. Some feel that intensive courses are especially suited for elementary work in the spoken language and that a reduction of classroom hours might be acceptable for advanced work in the written language. However, the problem remains of maintaining whatever proficiency a student has attained in his spoken language work. Thus, to reach maximal effectiveness, a series of intensive or semi-intensive courses integrating work in the spoken and written languages might be offered, with the institution going all out on intensive courses in the summer and intensive or semi-intensive courses in the winter. The possibility arises of concentrating all elementary language teaching, both of the usual and unusual languages, in the summer time in order to take the load off of teaching them in the winter. This would plunge the students into second-year language work during their first year of college.

d. Special problems arise when the only teacher of a course in any neglected language is either hired away or goes on leave. Ready transfer of students to a second institution in which the same language is taught seems to be one answer.

3. The oral-aural approach versus reading-translation-grammar

The following observations are based both on class visits and on opinions expressed by staff members at most of the institutions visited.

The language classes with the largest sense of liveliness and activity are those in which only the target language is used and the major part of the hour is devoted to hammer-and-tongs pattern drill. Even when mastery of the written language is the goal, listening and speaking should precede reading and writing; the royal road to accomplishment leads through oral-aural drill. Recent research shows that at the end of two semesters students who began their study of the German language in this way were far superior in listening and speaking, were almost on the same level of reading and writing ability, and were superior in habituated direct association, that is, avoidance of mental translation. The students taught by traditional methods were superior in written translation. (See George A. C. Scherer and Michael Wertheimer, "The German Teaching Experiment at the University of Colorado," The German Quarterly, XXXV: 3, May 1962.) For languages like Chinese, Japanese, Thai, Hindi-Urdu, Arabic, and Persian, for which the system of writing is highly complicated, a reading-translation approach obliges each student to learn the phonological form of a word, its meaning, and its written symbolization all at once. Necessarily, this bogs down the learning process, whereas if the pronunciation and meaning were first learned and the written symbols later, the association of the three becomes relatively less difficult.

Reading-translation courses have a way of becoming tedious for the brighter students, since so much time is taken up in correcting student errors, often to the accompaniment of explanations on grammar by the instructor. Some teachers in reading courses spend altogether too much time in giving dictation. In one course observed during the summer, the grand total of seven sentences was written from dictation in the course of twenty-five minutes. Since the person doing the dictating was one of the students, the instructor not only had to correct the dictating student's mispronunciations, but the miswritings on the board. The errors, moreover, were compounded because the dittoed material on which the dictation was based was itself obscure or mistaken in a number of spots.

The oral-aural approach is not necessarily practiced at every institution which accepts it in theory. Nor is it practiced consistently by all of its instructors. It will certainly fail if the teachers are saddled with an old-line text intended for a class in which reading-translation-grammar is the strategy. These texts generally give a set of grammar rules, a vocabulary, idioms, and translation exercises from the target language to English, from English to the target language. The teacher amplifies in English on the grammar points that are already described in the book. The students do the required translations and the teacher's job becomes mainly one of correcting whatever errors are committed, with frequent reference to rules.

Exclusive use of the target language in the classroom may seem difficult to maintain. Some amount of discussion of grammar in English seems necessary for beginning students, especially if the rules are obscurely phrased, but grammar itself becomes more easy when inductive procedures are employed after a number of examples have been learned. Also, grammar lectures in English are easily concentrated during particular hours in a week and can be made the occasion for considerable amounts of joint mimicking.

Some teachers argue that it is more efficient to give the English equivalent of a term in the foreign language than to indicate its meaning in a series of paraphrases. This must be done without encouraging the students to believe that there is a one-to-one correspondence between languages. Sometimes it is necessary to invent equivalents for English terms that don't really have a counterpart in the language being learned.

To make for steady use of the target language, the teacher or drillmaster resists every temptation to speak in English:

a. His classroom directions, which must be used every day, are phrased in the language he is teaching. In language courses, the one real situation is in fact the classroom, and he makes it as much as possible a classroom.

b. By use of pictures and maps, gestures and actions, he conveys meanings in the classroom as in everyday life.

c. By using apt paraphrases or by using known synonyms and antonyms, he again gets across the desired meaning.

d. As the students gain in spoken proficiency, the preparation of oral reports forces them to speak in the foreign language they are learning. So too a device used in at least two programs: After several repetitions of a story, during which the new words are translated orally, the students are asked to translate the story quickly, sentence by sentence, then to answer questions on it, and finally to retell it themselves. The foreign language thus becomes a real medium of communication, despite some use of English.

The oral-aural approach, which puts a premium on knowledge that is usable and useful, generally instills a sense of increasing proficiency and confidence in the beginning student. Particularly in those languages which are encumbered with difficult writing systems, it probably reduces attrition in enrollment.

Especially at intermediate and advanced levels, exclusive use of a foreign language is demanded and cultivated not only in the classroom but in the dormitory. Song practices, lectures, dances, picnics, and concerts are all held in the foreign language that is being studied. A pledge to speak only the foreign language can be taken, and students, learning its value, will generally conform.

In classroom drill on the spoken language, the following principles operate:

a. Basically, only the target language is used and at normal speed, with only an occasional grammatical term given in English

b. The use of English is restricted to explanations of grammar, which are kept strictly separate from the drill periods in which only the foreign language is used. The separation of a small amount of lecturing time from large amounts of drill work is carefully observed. Where available, a good reference grammar which the students can consult in their study hours serves as the basis for any grammatical discussion.

c. Drilling is based on sentence patterns, with constant repetition, correction of student mispronunciations, and substitution of lexical items until native norms are achieved.

d. Choral repetition is used in connection with explanations of grammar and in alternation with individual repetition.

e. Irregular rotation of recitation, with each student given the opportunity to recite many times during each period

f. Deemphasis of translation

g. The infusion of variety in the teaching procedures, changing them frequently during any hour of instruction

h. Heavy participation by the students as opposed to the holding of monologues by the teacher.

To be avoided are:

a. Extra-heavy assignments

b. Covering two sets of materials, one for the spoken language and one for the written, when the two can be integrated.

The intensive summer course which in number of hours most closely compares with non-intensive academic year courses runs for eight weeks at the rate of 20 hours a week. Meeting a total of 160 hours, such a course equates fairly well with academic year courses which run for thirty weeks at the rate of four or five hours a week. In actuality, both the intensive courses offered in the summer and the non-intensive courses given during the academic year vary considerably in number of hours per week and day. Increasing the hours per day in the summer from four to five probably does not add to the effectiveness of an intensive program since wear and tear sets in and less time becomes available for study. It thus appears that the kind of schedule that comes closest to being ideal runs for eight weeks at the rate of five days per week and four hours per day, of which three are classroom hours and one is devoted to work in the laboratory. The hours, moreover, are separated one from another as much as possible and a variety of procedures is followed in the classroom.

Some believe that a quick course in linguistics might be combined with a language course, with the hours spent in language work gradually increased as those in linguistics diminish. Thus, an hour per day of language work during the first two weeks, joined with two hours in general linguistics, might be followed by two hours per day in the third and fourth weeks, joined with a single hour in linguistics, and this by three hours of language in the fifth week, with linguistics dropped from the program. This "crescendo" approach merits further experimentation.

Some programs run for ten or more weeks, but when this is the case, and in particular when the courses run longer than the regular summer session, both the teaching staffs and students seem to tire. In a few programs running ten weeks or more the possibility arises of an intensive program in the summer accomplishing more than a year's work. If the continuation course in the fall is able to pick up where the summer course ends, no difficulty ensues.

It is possible to operate a six-week program meeting five hours a day, but this is undoubtedly too taxing for both teachers and students.

The doctrine that the teacher-student ratio in the classroom should run approximately 1:8 is generally accepted, the chief exception in favor of a larger number of students coming where lectures in grammar are being held.

For the student who is unable to take any kind of course in the summer, intensive or non-intensive, one instructor has prepared some "carry-over" drills consisting of sentences and conversations in script and transcription, recapitulating materials studied during the previous semester and recorded on tapes which the students may borrow. Some kind of reward awaits this instructor in heaven.

4. Some problems pertaining to language teaching

Much remains to be learned in the line of teaching methodology:

a. We need to know more about what can be achieved in a given number of contact hours spread over different periods of time.

b. We need to know more about the measurement of achievement in language.

c. The proportion of time to be devoted to oral drill, laboratory work, and reading needs to be studied.

d. The problem, how large a part of drill-work may be programmed, and whether it is possible to devise a series of exercises in which students learn to correct their own misprounciations, needs examination. There appeared to be no concern (not even experimental or negative) with techniques suggested by machine programming.

e. We do not know the precise moment in a course, intensive, semi-intensive, or ordinary, at which the symbols in a non-alphabetic system of writing should be introduced, or the rate at which they can be acquired.

f. We do not know the techniques whereby entire sequences of characters may be read at a glance as opposed to piecemeal identification of each succeeding symbol which is too often the rule.

g. We need to know whether we should introduce each day's teaching materials orally and withhold the written texts and grammatical comments from our students until the drillwork has been completed. We need to know whether this procedure is actually more effective than the usual introduction of each day's lesson with grammar comments and printed material.

h. We need to know when a student will most benefit from total immersion in the culture whose language he is studying. When should he go to Russia, India, or the Congo? Presumably, he needs first to establish an aptitude for the language he is studying and ability to profit in terms of his specialty.

III. Objectives

Complete fluency within the range of materials studied in class, meaning the ability to carry on everyday conversation effectively, is the chief objective which intensive elementary courses in spoken language strive for. Specifically, the order of aims agrees with the order in which work in the desired competences is introduced:

a. hearing,

b. speaking,

c. reading, and

d. writing.

Within any summer session, the beginning student should become able to manage the greetings required in everyday life, buy things, go from one place to another, or move into a hotel. For the languages that are written in the letters of the alphabet, he should be able to read the simplest texts, certainly with the aid of a dictionary. The further goals of becoming so sensitive to each new foreign expression that he would be able to request its meaning and stand a chance of comprehending what is answered, of being able to converse confidently in his specialty, or of reading professional materials in his field become the objectives of intermediate and advanced training.

Implicit among the objectives of a spoken language course is the development of conversational fluency within the limits of the grammar forms and vocabulary taught in the course. Ideally, the course seeks to develop

a. accuracy in pronunciation, including approximation to native norms of intonation (control of phrase rhythm and juncture phenomena), accent (both tone and stress), the pronunciation of the phonemes in the proper allophones, especially if these are not found in English, vowel length, the doubling of consonants, etc.

b. accuracy and variety in use of grammar forms

c. deft use of words and phrases in accordance with idiom

d. fluency, as shown by quickness in comprehension and readiness to sustain conversation to the fullest limits required in any language situation

e. understanding of stylistic differences.

The specific objectives for written language work include:

a. accuracy in use of vocabulary, phrases, and grammatical forms, both in composition and in translation

b. accuracy in spelling and passable if not elegent handwriting

c. correct pronunciation of words and phrases and general fluency in reading materials either in romanization or in native script

d. the ability to analyze a text or a sentence grammatically

e. the proper interpretation of differences in style, in both reading and composition.

Some instructors believe that a premium should be placed on successful communication as opposed to correctness in every detail. Sometimes it seems best to let the students "have their say" instead of correcting them whenever they make an error. Moreover, there is a notable difference in a beginning student's pronunciation when he is repeating a phrase or sentence that he has already learned and when he is "on his own." Probably in a beginning course the greatest emphasis should be given to rote memorizing and repetition, with "free conversation" kept within the limits of utterances and dialogues already learned. Freer conversation and a daring use of phrases and sentences in fresh combinations come when a stock of phrases has been learned. The emphases shift as a course progresses, but it seems clear that at any point in a program it is uncertainty in teaching aims that hurts it.

We need finally to note that in beginning courses most institutions concentrate on skills that are basically linguistic. As the students sharpen their competences, the linguistic aims will remain but more attention will be given to content, with some institutions tending to emphasize materials in the humanities and others in the social sciences.

IV. The teaching staff

Generally speaking, intensive courses in foreign languages involve a team effort. The best results are obtained when the whole program is carefully controlled. By careful control is not meant dictation from some topside supervisor, but cooperative effort in which a supervisor, working with his instructors and drillmasters, maintains step by step mastery over all of the material to be taught and keeps a constant check on student accomplishment. Especially effective are such devices as the following:

a. staff meetings

b. classroom visits by the supervisor (sometimes accompanied by guests).

The use of lesson plans and distribution of memoranda are less frequently observed procedures.

Where joint participation in a single course by two or more instructors or drillmasters is possible, the students gain the advantage of hearing more than one dialect or idiolect and discover the range of variability permitted among speakers of the "standard" or "common" language. However, the possibility of hearing and mimicking more than a single voice is generally restricted to the larger programs.

Linguists and drillmasters, working as a team, sometimes try to work out in class a point of grammar on which the linguist is not sure. This, to say the least, is disconcerting to the student, who benefits from the discussion only to the extent that he is exposed to authentic pronunciation and learns something about dealing with members of a foreign culture.

1. The language supervisor

Efficient management of an intensive language program seems to require a supervisor who

a. maintains affable but tight and detailed control over each phase of his program, insisting on the use of clearly defined materials for each day's work and leaving nothing to chance or improvisation

b. is well grounded in linguistics and in knowledge of the language over whose teaching he has been placed in charge

c. knows what the textbooks in his language are and is ingenious in the preparation of lesson plans, supplementary materials, and examinations over whose production and execution he wins full cooperation from his instructors and drillmasters (the questions used in question-and-answer drills are sometimes written out in characters for drillmasters in languages like Chinese and Japanese who find the characters more easy to read than any romanized script)

d. directs staff meetings and provides constructive advice on the conduct of classes (which he visits from time to time on the basis of an accepted "open-door" policy)

e. has the confidence of his administration while at the same time remains persuasive in his efforts to secure the best possible salary scales and working conditions for his staff. Experience and effectiveness should have their rewards - as must happen in any ideal world. Where consultation with students, assignments in the language laboratory, and preparation of lesson materials are required of the junior linguists, instructors, and drillmasters in his program, he should be willing to arrange a reduction in the total number of teaching hours.

f. is flexible enough to encourage occasional informal activities which, however, provide additional practice in language

g. more than anyone else in his program, shows a flair for research both in the language whose teaching he is directing and in teaching methodology

h. insures effective teaching by new staff members by holding pre-session training periods

i. maintains good rapport with his counterparts at other institutions

j. prepares such materials as the following and so imparts a sense of order to any program:

(1) bulletins and catalogues describing the entire program
(2) rosters of staff (with curriculum vitae, office rooms)
(3) listings of texts and tapes
(4) weekly schedules showing classrooms, hours, assignments, and teachers
(5) application forms for admission
(6) promotional material (letters, flyers) sent to other colleges and to secondary schools

(7) announcements of lectures, exhibits, and other special events
(8) maps of one's campus.

The development of a professional and academic sense within his staff remains one of his major concerns. Careful guidance of the instructors and drillmasters who serve with him may sometimes smack of a "big brother" hovering over some little ones. Classroom visits, for instance, may disturb a drillmaster who is actually more effective if less thoroughly supervised. On the other hand, it is the supervisor who sees to it that in the teaching of an exotic language standards of preparation and accomplishment are as uniform and as exacting as in other fields.

In any conflict with students, the teachers need, of course, the support of their supervisors. Since the departments offering courses on the critical languages are generally small, the teachers undertake a great deal, especially by way of giving extra reading and spoken language sessions on an ad hoc basis. The care and nurture of the teachers should be a constant concern of the supervisor, the more so in those cases in which Russian, and even Japanese, might be housed in a Department of Romance Languages and Literatures.

Considering how easy it is to have a staff fall at odds with each other, unusual deftness is required of a language supervisor. More than anyone else, it is the language supervisor who by dint of hard work, high standards, self-assuredness, and flexibility gives tone to his program. Uninterrupted experience, constant activity, and concentration of talent both scholarly and pedagogic are some of the distinguishing features of his program. Possibly, somewhere we may one day find this paragon of virtue, of professional and personal tidiness, who is knowledgeable, pleasant, accessible, and effective.

2. The junior linguist and instructor

Where a junior linguist and instructor directs the classroom activities of a team of drillmasters, he too should possess most of the qualities of a supervisor, although of course he would not be concerned with budgetary matters. The interposition of junior linguists and instructors between the supervisor and drillmasters sometimes has the advantage, where native speakers of certain languages are concerned, of giving the supervisor the respect that comes from social distance. This, however, touches on a delicate area, since in the prosecution of language programs in a democratic society, expectations are raised to conduct them in a democratic way.

A junior linguist or instructor probably needs to spend a good deal of time in producing vocabulary sheets, grammar notes, charts of the writing system, and phonetic diagrams. He also needs to shoulder a large part of the burden of preparing supplementary lesson materials and examinations, and spends much time in consultation, both with his assistants and with his students. Devotion, hard work, and resourcefulness, desiderata in any endeavor, increase his usefulness to any program. He may even be a graduate student, especially if his knowledge of a foreign language's grammar is sound and he is able to work with the drillmasters.

3. The native-speaker drillmaster

The position of the native speaker who acts as drillmaster should receive maximal consideration from both supervisors and administration.

Some of their problems are the same surrounding the instructor who has not yet won his Ph.D. degree and thus cannot be placed on the regular promotional ladder. But the drillmaster, like the Ph.D. candidate who serves as a teaching fellow in Freshman composition or section leader in mathematics, actually performs the bulk of the job of teaching and his rewards in salary if not in title should be commensurate with the real load that he is carrying. The development of something like a professional academic attitude to his work depends to a large extent on the supervisors, junior linguists, and instructors with whom he works. On his own part he is most effective if:

a. he possesses full control of the language that he is teaching, in a dialect that is either the "standard" or "common" one

b. he is willing at each point in the teaching program to carry all or most of the burden of pattern practice, vigorously correcting each student mispronunciation and, without signs of boredom, calling for constant repetitions until the patterns are firmly fixed. He also develops a sense of when to stop a reciting student. Hoping for fluency, he may permit a student to have his say. But he also keeps mental (if not written) notes on the student's inaccuracies and turns to them when the recitation is over. He realizes that he is not making speeches.

c. he serves as his program's best authority on the phonology, grammar, and lexicon of his language insofar as control of these elements of language is built into his system; the materials used in the classroom and the responses made by the students must gain his approval, that is, agree with his sense of what is idiomatically correct

d. he is able to assist in the preparation of drill materials

e. he helps in making tapes

f. he is ready to help his students in individual drill

k. he restricts his use of his language to the patterns and vocabulary that his students have already learned, and does not introduce grammatical forms and lexical items that are new to the student

l. he willingly cooperates with the supervisor and instructors in following whatever suggestions that may arise in staff meetings and consultations, and takes in stride any classroom visitations by the supervisor and instructors

m. he resists the temptation to expostulate on the grammar of his language, and turns each student's questions on grammar to the supervisor or instructor in charge

n. he resists the temptation to modify or distort his own speech "to make it easier" for his students

o. he exhibits real concern with the educational process and demands good performance, consistently correcting all mispronunciations

p. he takes full advantage of every physical asset in the classroom - like breaking the neat alignment of seats and arranging his students in a semicircle around him

q. he is vigorous and informal in his mannerisms

r. he willingly participates as a resource person in area courses, as required or when feasible

s. he does not participate in private dialogues with extra-articulate students.

Since the drillmasters necessarily meet their students in various social contexts outside the classroom and are almost inevitably looked upon as representatives of their cultures, it seems useful to list some other desiderata. The drillmasters should be:

a. emotionally stable

b. neither too aggressive concerning the values they find in their cultures nor too defensive concerning the demerits in them

c. not too Americanized

d. willing to take direction as required, even though this may result in a certain amount of culture shock

e. willing, where required, to live with their students, maintaining such relationships that the entire teaching program is improved.

Most often, an intensive program has for its teaching staff a supervisor and one or more drillmasters. Some intensive courses are taught by a single instructor, who thus becomes supervisor and drillmaster alone. The joint presence of a linguist and drillmaster (or drillmasters) in a classroom is a luxury that few programs can afford. It also requires considerable psychological understanding on the part of linguist, drillmaster, and student. In at least one case, the linguists in charge of summer courses were outranked by their drillmasters apparently without damage to the program.

The position of the native speaking drillmaster becomes all the more important because, ironically, those holders of National Defense Foreign Language Fellowships who are being trained for language teaching are unable, according to the terms of their grants, to accept teaching assignments with pay. To provide teaching experience, courses labeled as practica need to be developed. Otherwise the students remain ill-prepared to take the positions for which they are presumably being trained.

Institutions differ in the academic position and in the role of the instructors. Some may work with "informants" while others may typically employ more or less academically active drillmasters. Another difference lies in the extent to which special faculty (sometimes a little unfamiliar with local conditions) is hired for the summer. A third difference has to do with rotation of instructors; even where enough of them are available, this rotation is all too seldom practiced.

The foregoing discussion assumes that joint teaching by a linguist and drillmaster is uneconomic if a drillmaster can be trained to act as teacher. Actually, not enough linguists are available even if joint teaching of a class by a linguist and drillmaster were budgetarily feasible. But in each case, whether it be supervisor, linguist, instructor, or drillmaster, sensitiveness to the students' attitudes and needs ranks high in administering an intensive program. The students deserve the best in both staff and program.

V. The students

Morale among students in intensive courses is generally good. Most are headed for careers as teachers, government workers (in the State and Defense departments), businessmen, librarians, or missionaries. Others seek to come closer to a sense of world politics, as in taking Russian. The children and grandchildren of immigrants sometimes study a foreign language in order to be able to talk to their elders. Some are merely fulfilling a foreign language requirement. Some are taking the language "for fun." And in a few cases, a faculty member from another institution is studying a neglected language because his administration hopes to offer it. Thus in the majority of cases some kind of aim or incentive is there. The motivation is good, and a large percentage of the students are really committed to intensive study, making work in the classroom particularly rewarding and even exciting for the teacher.

Morale is greatly enhanced in those programs where there is a clear statement of goals and where progress is measured so that the student knows at any given point in the program where he stands.

Morale is also enhanced where fellowships and scholarships are offered. A fairly large group of graduate students in the summer intensive courses, possibly as many as 175, hold National Defense Foreign Language Fellowships, and many are recipients of grants at the universities where they study. The undergraduate student, unfortunately, remains the forgotten man. Since he must often use his summers in earning funds for his studies in the academic year, a small grant is of very little use to him. And yet it is in the undergraduate student training for graduate study in whom the aims of NDEA and the needs of the professions and vocations will really be met. Too large a percentage of the students in the intensive language programs are graduate students; regrettably, some of the programs cater exclusively to graduates.

VI. Texts

The oral approach implies that it is the spoken language that is being taught first. The better texts show two or more persons talking to each other, with supplementary exercises illustrating particular patterns of grammar. The procedure is thus different from that followed in the usual grammar-translation text which illustrates points of grammar with series of disconnected sentences but commonly gives no dialogues and no conversations.

Virtually no one grants that existing texts are entirely satisfactory. Among the supplementary materials produced for use in intensive courses are:

a. Introductions to pronunciation, phonetic charts, and drills developing facility in pronunciation

b. Sets of sentences showing breath pauses and other intonational features

c. Sets of sentences supplementing the texts with respect to grammar (showing, for instance, the kinds of agreement and concord found among the several elements of a sentence) or to vocabulary (using a basic word-count)

d. Counting exercises

e. Listings of grammar terms, with translations

f. Morphologic charts

g. Listings of specialized vocabulary and dialect variants where appropriate, as in Hindi-Urdu

h. Lists of terms applicable to the staff and several elements of a language program which have to be concocted because the equivalents are not to be found in the native educational system

i. Charts of the writing system for the non-alphabetical languages

j. Scripts of conversations, stories, songs, speeches, lectures, including slide lectures, and questions based on the lectures; also, scripts of radio and TV broadcasts and movie scripts

k. Scripts of translation exercises, English into the foreign language, foreign language into English

l. Maps, lists of place-names appearing on the maps

m. Descriptions in English of the geography and history of the country or area in which the foreign language is spoken

n. Bibliographies of writings in English of the country or area in which the foreign language is spoken.

In order to promote conversation, many programs provide the following audio-visual aids:

a. pictures

b. maps

c. models of clocks.

The pictures may illustrate both scenes and actions.

VII. Examinations

Considerable ingenuity goes into the writing of examinations. And yet it is only in a few programs that real variety is found in the types of examination given.

Virtually no one uses a language aptitude test or the Graduate Record Examination in determining a student's capacity to learn a language. And yet it seems clear that students attracted to language courses vary greatly in this capacity. Placement tests, some of which may seem perfunctory but are still effective, are usually given to transfer students. A close relationship probably exists between articulateness in one's mother tongue (English) and control of a foreign language; it is sometimes sheer physiology which prevents a student from gaining competence in a second language. But foreign language teachers are often cowards when it comes to discouraging an obviously inept student even though most of them can probably tell within a week's time what the ultimate capacities of a student would be.

Examinations serve many purposes. They tell a student where he stands, act as a prod, are useful for diagnosis, and oblige the student to bring together items that he has already learned into close relationship with each other. Studying for an examination permits a student to summate and cement what he has already learned. In passing an examination with creditable grades, he discovers a feeling of achievement.

The Chinese tests developed under the direction of Professor John Carroll and the Russian tests now being developed under the auspices of the MLA open up the prospect of nation-wide testing. Various voices rise in criticism of nation-wide tests, but the tests can themselves be bettered and they suggest various means of improving particular courses.

In addition to placement examinations, most supervisors resort during the first week to some combination of the following procedures to place their students in the right courses:

a. Interviews with the students

b. Reviews of work previously done

c. Observation in class.

1. Tests for comprehension

The easiest types of examination are those testing for comprehension, either of something said or of something written:

a. translation, target language into English

b. marking one of two or more "multiple choices"

c. marking "true" or "false" one of a number of statements, orally delivered

d. answers in English to questions in the target language

e. answers in the target language to questions in the target language, sometimes on the basis of a lecture with the answers delivered orally or in writing

f. corrections of sentences that contain errors as to content

g. changes from declarative to interrogative sentences, and vice versa, where applicable

2. Tests for pronunciation:

a. analysis of student recordings, with the errors preferably noted on sheets in which major types of error are already shown and spaces left open to write down the particular words or forms in which the errors are detected

3. Tests for knowledge of grammar:

a. fill-ins of inflectional forms

b. conjugations, paradigms, parsing of forms

c. changing one form into another

d. corrections of sentences that contain errors in their forms

e. recorded speeches that are analyzed for the forms that are used

4. Tests for knowledge of sentence structure:

a. arrangement of vocabulary items in a designated order

5. Tests for knowledge of vocabulary:

a. fill-ins of blank spaces in sentences, in the right forms, sometimes with the English supplied where the blank spaces occur

6. Tests for productive capacity in the written language:

a. Written compositions

b. Equivalents in the foreign language of sentences in English

c. Production of questions based on given blocks of material, addressed to the other students for answers

d. Sight reading followed by paraphrases or by translations

7. Tests of knowledge of non-alphabetical writing systems (the systems in which languages like Thai, Hindi, Urdu, Chinese, and Japanese are written):

a. Transcription into characters of sentences that are orally delivered

b. Transcription of romanized sentences into the characters in which the foreign language is written, or vice versa

c. In Japanese, transcription of the Chinese characters into syllabic kana

8. Tests for productive capacity in the spoken language:

a. Translation, English into target language

b. Eliciting answers in the foreign language to questions in the foreign language, especially useful in those cases in which the answers require something more than the mere parroting of most of a teacher's questions

c. Stating a situation and having the students converse with each other in a manner appropriate to the situation

d. Requiring the students to serve as interpreters between speakers of English and speakers of the foreign language.

Each of these examinations may be recorded. However, tests administered in the classroom are generally better than those given on tape, since tests rendered by a teacher are probably less disturbing to the students. Also, less staff time is needed to grade the students on the spot than to play back and grade the taped answers of the whole class.

VIII. The language laboratory

Distressed by mechanical failures or by overcrowding in the language laboratory, some programs substitute an extra drill hour with a drillmaster in lieu of work in the laboratory. Ideally, there should be no breakage and malfunction in the equipment; highly desirable is the presence of a technician able to make almost every kind of repair. Some laboratories rely on insurance policies that permit swift attention to every bit of damage.

Typically, language laboratory hours are devoted to drill on materials already covered in class. Where most effective, they involve:

a. the preparation of lesson plans

b. use of paused and double-tracked tape, permitting plenty of opportunity for mimicking and recording

c. use of exercises in which the student is asked to modify some part of a construction and then hears the master voice giving a model performance

d. constant monitoring either from a central keyboard or by instructors who roam from berth to berth, or both; the recording of student pronunciations is accompanied by diagnosis of errors and correction. The presence of a technician is of course not the same as supervision.

Each exercise with taped materials should involve some kind of response. The laboratory periods are thus regarded as instructional hours forming a vital part of the total program and not, as is too often the case, opportunities to listen to a foreign language on an optional basis.

In many institutions, attendance at a language laboratory is duly recorded on a time clock, and reports of attendance regularly submitted to the instructors. This practice suggests that mere attendance and repetition adds to language competence. But if the laboratory hours were actually treated as instructional hours, with a monitoring instructor in charge, the time card and its implications can be eliminated at once.

The language laboratory has at least two other uses:

a. It can be used as a recording studio for students at the beginning, middle, and end of each course, to prepare tapes that will show the amount of progress they have made.

b. It may also serve a real function as a listening post if a tape library of speeches, plays, recitations of poetry, and songs were built up and the students provided with schedules to show at what points in their training these tapes would become, say, 80% understandable.

It is possible that language programs throughout the country have not made sufficient use of the language laboratory in the sense that its use is generally limited to only thirty minutes or an hour per day. In one institution, two hours of work in the language laboratory are contemplated for next year: one hour of drill in the language that is being taught and one in general phonetics. For suggestions concerning the use of a language laboratory, language supervisors might well consult Edward M. Stack, The language laboratory and modern language teaching, New York, Oxford University Press, 1960.

When model tapes are recorded without the customary pauses between utterances, the monitor or technician has to switch the tape on and off for mimicking by the students. Or a student working alone may be provided with two machines: a tape player and a tape recorder. These machines may be used separately, or both together.

a. The model tapes are placed on the tape player. When the end of a sentence or phrase is reached, the student stops the player and starts the recorder. He then records his repetition. This procedure allows him to go slowly with new material, taking all the time in the world if he so desires, and, as he gains control of the material, taking progressively shorter pauses. Live broadcasts and commercial recordings may be used in the same way. Also, half as much tape is needed for recording the masters.

b. The model tapes may contain a series of questions. Played through a ceiling speaker, the first question is given once; a three or four second pause follows during which the student prepares his answer; the loud speaker announces, "Record!"; the student sets his recorder in motion, records his answer, stops the tape, and waits for the next question. Once the quiz is ended, he is told to rewind to the beginning, in preparation for hearing the correct answers. He hears the correct answer to the first question, plays his own answer, stops the tape, and waits for the next answer. He thus hears the correct answer even while the quiz is still fresh in his mind. And since only the answers are recorded, correction, by himself or by the monitor, at least of the grammar, becomes relatively rapid and simple.

In teaching the discrimination of different foreign sounds, one method favored at one school was found wanting at another. The procedure involves the use of tape-recorded drills. The student listens to a series of short words or syllables, including nonsense syllables, at three-second intervals and marks an answer sheet according to whether the utterance contains or does not contain the sound being drilled. At one of the schools, the desired discriminations were achieved. At another, two weeks of laboratory time were devoted to this work, but the teacher concluded that it was worthless, at least in the context of his class, and that the class was only baffled and frustrated by these exercises. The only improvement in sound discrimination, he felt, appeared to have come from class drills with the drillmaster, using mainly words from the lessons rather than the taped drills. It appears that research is needed in this area, which incidentally bears on the efficacy of machine programming.

Generally speaking, it seems fruitless to record grammatical rules in English, but this is sometimes observed!

The language laboratory should permit each student to proceed at his own pace. This is most easily accomplished when a dial system is used and the students are permitted to dial in to whatever lesson they wish to hear.

IX. Quasi-curricular activities

The scheduling of quasi-curricular activities is probably best managed in intermediate and advanced courses. Performances of short skits and plays and presentation of speeches both memorized and impromptu are less easily required of beginning students, whose knowledge of the foreign language would still be elementary. But some part of the language classes can profitably be devoted to the acting out of dialogues based on the greetings and patterns that have already been learned.

At the intermediate and advanced levels, various programs schedule:

a. slide lectures for which the script may be taped and the students provided with both scripts and questions

b. skits and playlets whose scripts are composed by the students

c. speech and story-telling contests

d. song hours.

Especially at advanced levels and at places like New York and Hawaii where radio broadcasts and TV programs in the foreign language can be enjoyed, or where movies in the foreign language can be seen, the language programs possess a special advantage. But there is virtually no program that makes use of radio, TV, and movie scripts as part of the teaching material, and therefore no program in which these scripts are studied prior to listening to a particular taped radio broadcast or viewing a particular video-taped TV play or movie. Various listings give the sources from which movies in foreign languages can be secured. Luncheon tables and coffee hours are easily scheduled. But language houses with comfortable sleeping quarters, living room, "listening room," and library, and tours on chartered planes to areas where the foreign language is spoken are reserved for the more fortunate. Where found, as in the tour groups of the Russian programs at Indiana and Michigan, they are not quasi-curricular arrangements but integral parts of a teaching program. Less useful as vehicles for the study of a foreign language are guest lecturers in English and cultural heritage groups associated with foreign areas; these, however, enlarge upon the cultural content of foreign language study. This is also true of associations with professors, researchers, and students from foreign areas: too often the talk here is in English, partly because this is the language which the visitors wish to practice and partly because for beginning students a prolonged conversation in the language they are studying becomes a wearing experience. Nevertheless, these contacts do reinforce the students' growing knowledge of a foreign area and anticipate the time when they are able to use the language they are studying in these contacts.

X. Reading courses

So far this report has had to do mainly with intensive courses in the spoken language, chiefly because intensive courses in the written language tend to be advanced courses and are rarely offered. In the best of the reading courses, the passages that the students have read are treated as material on which questions might be asked in the foreign language and conversations held. The degree of comprehension achieved is gauged by ability to paraphrase the material.

In those languages in which a non-alphabetic script is used, the students are provided with vocabulary lists giving the pronunciations and meanings of words that are new in the text, along with notes on points of grammar. The provision of these lists is not to be viewed as spoon-feeding, but as a device to insure multiple exposure to the same vocabulary and grammar items. A student of a European language probably doubles the amount of time he takes in reading a page of print when he looks up the meanings of three words in a dictionary. Students of Chinese or Japanese or even of Arabic and Russian lose even more time when they hunt particular words, characters, and compounds in a dictionary. But even for these students, an effort at memorizing is desirable: the explanation of a

word, character, or compound, once made, need not be repeated when the same word, character, or compound appears once more. The most easily read materials are those that are descriptive. Hence, in programming a reading course, materials in such fields as geography and sociology might be first assigned, before literary and historical texts, containing a larger percentage of narrative forms ("when" clauses, "if" clauses), are read. But within each field of knowledge, a grading of materials in terms of linguistic difficulty is possible. Each field, as practiced in a foreign country, may not produce scholarly materials of top importance, but evaluation of their worth comes in part from reading them and the primary documents of each field remain crucial to the investigator.

Since more homework is required in a course on the written language, it is almost mandatory for it to schedule fewer hours. But intensive courses in the written language, calling for ten hours of classroom work a week, are not unknown, and even in written work more is accomplished in these courses simply because the students are exposed to more work. Since "writing maketh the exact man," compositions play an important role in courses in the written language. At two or three institutions, the compositions written by the students are gathered in booklet form.

Courses in the written language must make sure that the students receive ample guidance in reading and identifying personal and place names through using dictionaries both general and specialized.

Generally, teachers of the written language surrender too easily to the temptation to resort to grammar-translation as their method. For languages written in a non-alphabetical script, even a beginner's knowledge of the system of writing adds to a student's self-esteem. But early study of a foreign script may become an impediment to competence in speech. Intensive courses meeting four hours a day, however, may soon introduce one hour a day of work on the written language since in the remaining three hours it is possible to assure continued and even rapid progress in speech. Advanced courses meeting three or four hours a week become worthwhile only when they do something more than keep up the competences already acquired.

XI. Language-area liaison

No language course can hope to present the facts and principles of a social or technical science in any systematic way. However, a language course may serve to back up and to augment the knowledge given in these non-language courses. Though it would take a highly sensitive American student to draw from the materials of a beginning language course and from his drillmasters even the most common traits discoverable in a foreign culture, the language course does serve as a kind of introduction to the culture it represents. Teachers may in fact disagree over the interpretation of the selections in a particular textbook. Even isolated phrases, sentences, and paragraphs may be "condemned." Where native speaking drillmasters disagree in their interpretations, say, of Russian character structure, heated discussions may follow. Nevertheless, accretions in one's knowledge of a foreign culture, received from whatever source, should be accepted as a good thing.

Scientists, both social and technical, thus accept the need of strong programs in language in order to bolster the technical competences of their students. In fact, the relationship between language and area programs is becoming more and more one of corporate viability and some of the

social scientists are numbered among the strongest advocates of intensive summer language study. More and more students come to language programs from such fields as history, geography, political science, anthropology, economics, art, and sociology, and languages like Russian now attract students from virtually every field who vaguely feel that learning a foreign language is a way of getting closer to the international situation. To meet the requirements of all these students, special means might be taken:

a. Where the texts now in use are hopelessly inadequate as far as coverage of the culture of an area is concerned, new texts should be written. Some of the texts that are still being used date back to World War II and contain somewhat anachronistic references to the military (trips to the hospital to visit the wounded!) and civil administration.

b. Supplementary materials appropriate to each subject area might be introduced at particular points in the language course, using the grammar forms that have already been learned and consisting of the vocabulary of each field covered

c. Specialized vocabulary lists might be issued

d. Lists of specialized dictionaries might be compiled

e. Films might be prepared to show the relationships that exist between language and culture and the relationships between language, gesture, and action.

The infusion of valid cultural materials into a language program is one answer to the problem of joining language and area interests. The area teacher also helps by:

a. assigning readings in foreign languages to all students capable of reading them

b. using as many foreign terms as he can in his lectures and discussions without becoming bizarre

c. relating area matters to language.

The development of language courses at intermediate or advanced levels which tie in directly with an integrated area course has not been tried, but would constitute a real effort at integrating growth of knowledge of a foreign area.

Finally, the development of a language program has in rare instances outstripped the development of a strong area program. The cure here is so obvious that it need not be elaborated. The student who takes a summer language course which is truly intensive is usually unable to add an area course to his program, but in the academic year he is able to combine courses in language and area. Summer programs of somewhat ad hoc character, such as the Peace Corps, deliberately combine language and area work, in full knowledge that both are necessary in the training of the participants.

XII. The physical environment

In general the physical environment in which classes are held is good. The desiderata mentioned most often include:

a. air conditioning, installation of which would undoubtedly add greatly to classroom efficiency. In fact, the perspiring faces sometimes seen in the classroom suggest that intensive language courses might readily be given in summer camps set in pastoral surroundings

b. better acoustics in classrooms where either the instructor's voice or the voices of the students reverberate too harshly

c. placement in closer proximity to each other of offices, classrooms, the language laboratory, and the library, of which the first three in particular should be closely placed with respect to each other.

XIII. Some ancillary problem areas

1. Graduate versus undergraduate credit

Some language supervisors and many graduate students ask whether graduate credit might not be offered for intensive beginning courses. To be sure, the systems of writing for some of the languages of the world are exceedingly complex, but there seems to be no real justification for the granting of graduate credit for the first two years of language work, no more so for the critical languages than for the "alphabetical" ones of Europe. For certain languages, the texts are written in French or German, but even for these languages, many will be replaced by those now being prepared either under contract with the U. S. Office of Education or independently.

2. The foreign language requirement

The mere meeting of a language requirement is only an incidental reason for election of an "exotic" language. Since, in point of fact, the fulfillment of a language requirement rarely leads to effective speaking or reading knowledge, it cannot be equated with the kind of mastery which intensive courses, taken over a period of four or five semesters, might produce. The problem of the language requirement lies somewhat outside the purview of this report, but it seems worthwhile to record two attempts to require an effective reading knowledge. At one institution three semesters or twelve units of a single language must be elected in order to fulfill the language requirement. Proficiency examinations are given in order to place entering students (freshmen and transfer students) in the proper class. If they fail to place where they normally should (in terms of high school preparation, two years of foreign language are usually equated with one in college), they may not take any lower courses for credit.

At a second institution, each student must take a placement test and show competence equivalent to that achieved after two years' study in a college or university. If this proficiency is demonstrated, he then takes a literature course in order to complete his foreign language requirement. If the student shows 1 1/2 years' proficiency, he takes the fourth semester language course and the literature course. All other students must complete four semesters of work in a foreign language. Possibly the only suggestion to make with respect to this set of requirements is to develop reading courses in the social and technical sciences in addition to the literature course.

XIV. Conclusion

We have tried to present in the foregoing discussion a résumé of practices and problems relating to intensive summer programs in the uncommon languages, as observed at the twenty-two institutions covered in our survey. However, this summation does not include all of the procedures followed by inventive supervisors who work outside these institutions. An interesting device reported from a school in Tokyo is perhaps best used in teaching Japanese. It consists in flashing on the screen the components of each sentence in a lesson, beginning first with the predicate (the verb, adjective, or specifier form) coming at the end of the sentence. Successive slides show the antecedent phrases along with the predicate, with each antecedent phrase closest to the predicate added in turn. As the slides change, the student reads everything that he sees on the screen. This insures reading the predicates most often. In having the students repeat the element which most teachers would regard as being most crucial in the interpretation of a Japanese sentence, the whole procedure suggests that it is possible to build up reading skills by giving pronunciation drills in the script.

A program is not necessarily a good one simply because it has attracted a large number of students. Unless the classes are handled with imagination, a large program may even bog down because of sheer numbers. But the intensive course which is small and contains students of varying abilities and interests is pedagogically difficult to handle. Courses depending on the continuous presence from year to year of a single instructor are particularly difficult to preserve, for he may easily be lured away to greener pastures. Local conditions will in some cases require the offering of courses to relatively few students. For the African and Southeast Asian languages, one or two centers should be supported regardless of the number of students that apply. But it seems unconscionable to subsidize an elementary course enrolling only a few students if a strong program, attended by a large number of students, is readily available. Although it is difficult to forecast the continuing needs for language personnel for even three years, a high premium should still be placed on quality programs, and some of the ingredients of a quality program are contained in the practices here reported from various universities.

Not every language and area center needs to be self-supporting. In many programs the larger enrollments in the elementary courses will carry financially the work at higher levels.

But the ratio of teachers to students in any course or section of a course in which the aim is to develop proficiency in the spoken language should ideally remain at about 1 to 8. When more than ten students enroll in a class, not enough individual drill is provided; when too few are enrolled, competition and reinforcement both are missed in the learning process. Some would argue for a 1 to 4 ratio.

Classes containing 2 or 3 students should be permitted if the students demonstrate special interests. Even tutorials have their justification, in honors and advanced courses. The matching funds furnished under NDEA should in fact be sufficient to carry any program, provided the need and quality are there.

This suggests that the best programs might well be subsidized beyond the 50% which is now the limit as far as matching funds are concerned.

It is just possible that courses in which proficiency in reading is the objective may be less expensively given. Some of the teachers in such courses feel unencumbered even when 15 students comprise a class. On

the other hand, the ability of a program to attract a large number of students usually means that it also attracts students at several levels of proficiency, and those at the higher levels would necessarily gather in smaller classes. It is possible to argue that there are too many intensive courses at the elementary level, and too few at intermediate and advanced. Ability to carry intermediate and advanced courses is in some cases evidence of the quality of a program.

One solution to the problem of providing top-flight instruction consists in establishing a summer program that is rotated among a number of participating institutions. Here the Near Eastern Program in which Harvard, Michigan, Princeton, Columbia, U.C.L.A., and Johns Hopkins, with Texas and Georgetown as associate members, are engaged serves as an interesting example, as do plans for a Far Eastern Institute projected by the Committee on Institutional Cooperation of the Big Eleven (consisting of the universities of the Big Ten Athletic Conference and the University of Chicago). Cooperation between Chicago and Wisconsin in teaching the languages of India may also be mentioned.

The concentration of intensive language programs at fewer institutions permits better use of faculty personnel. Cooperative effort by instructors drawn from several institutions will lead to mutual stimulation. The rotating summer program will provide opportunities to teach for those so inclined. Even language teachers can become fatigued from teaching and need periods of rest. But, as far as possible, supervision of a rotating language program should be centralized and a nucleus of teachers and drillmasters persuaded to teach at least two summers in succession, to provide the necessary continuity.

Still another solution to the problem of insuring the development of actual competences in a foreign language is suggested by the junior-year abroad and language-year abroad programs. These raise the question of the amount of language instruction which a student should receive prior to his trip abroad and the nature of his introduction to the discipline for which he is training when he has once arrived on a foreign shore. The establishment and maintenance of foreign centers geared to the special needs of the American student should continue to be encouraged. Problems of integration and articulation of programs will necessarily arise if several institutions participate, but need not be more difficult for the student than when he transfers from one institution to another. Integration with foreign institutions constitutes a second problem. Some kind of tutoring would seem useful to the student who, for instance, enters the halls of a foreign university after having received some amount of preparatory instruction in a center run by one or more American universities.

In the meantime the need to provide adequate training in foreign languages grows apace. Although decreasing enrollments have been reported in a few languages (Russian), the Sputnik wave promises to go higher, as will the increasing total tide of college enrollment. In such subjects as agronomy, poultry, and range management, the career opportunities abroad are now increasing much faster than are the corresponding domestic opportunities. Even those who are not students are studying foreign languages, in order to use these languages in their professions and vocations. The summer intensive language course is playing a crucial role in developing foreign language competence.